

1 *Review*

# 2 **BARD1 and breast cancer: the possibility of creating** 3 **screening tests and new preventive and therapeutic** 4 **pathways for predisposed women**

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17

18 **Abstract:** Current oncological developments are based on improved understanding of genetics, and  
19 especially the discovery of genes whose alterations affect cell functions with consequences for the  
20 whole body. Our work is focused on the one of these genes, the BARD1 and its oncogenic role in  
21 breast cancer. Most importantly, the study points to new avenues in the treatment and prevention  
22 of the most frequent female cancer based on BARD1 research. The BARD1 and BRCA1 proteins have  
23 similar structures and functions, and they combine to form the new molecule BARD1-BRCA1  
24 heterodimer. The BARD1-BRCA1 complex is involved in genetic stabilization at the cellular level. It  
25 allows to mark abnormal DNA fragments by attaching ubiquitin to them. In addition, it blocks (by  
26 ubiquitination of RNA polymerase II) the transcription of damaged DNA. Ubiquitination, as well  
27 as stabilizing chromatin, or regulating the number of centrosomes, confirms the protective  
28 cooperation of BARD1 and BRCA1 in the stabilization of the genome. The overexpression of the  
29 oncogenic isoforms BARD1 $\beta$  and BARD1 $\delta$  permit cancer development. The introduction of routine  
30 tests, for instance, to identify the presence of the BARD1 $\beta$  isoform, would make it possible to detect  
31 patients at high risk of developing cancer. On the other hand, introducing BARD1 $\delta$  isoform blocking  
32 therapy, which would reduce estrogen sensitivity, may be a new line of cancer therapy with  
33 potential to modulate responses to existing treatments. It is possible that the BARD 1 gene offers  
34 new hope for improving breast cancer therapy.

35 **Keywords:** breast cancer; BARD1; surveillance; management; genetic testing; predisposition;  
36 susceptibility; neoadjuvant; chemotherapy

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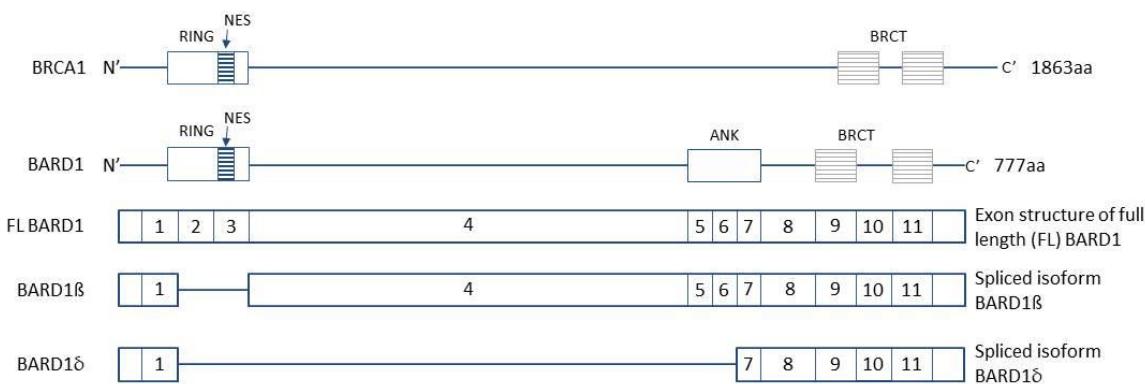
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## 38 **1. Introduction**

39 In 1996, Wu et al. discovered a binding partner protein of BRCA1 (BRCA1 C-terminal 1) which  
40 they named BRCA1-associated RING domain 1 (BARD1) [1]. The BARD1 gene is located on  
41 chromosome 2 and encoded by the sequence 2q34-q35. Its product is a 777 amino acid protein  
42 composed of an N-terminal RING-finger domain, three Ankyrin repeats (ANK) domains and two  
43 tandem BRCA1 C-terminal (BRCT) domains (Figure 1). The BARD1 protein structure is like that of  
44 the BRCA1, however it is different from that of the BRCA2 (BRCA2 C-terminal 2), the second gene  
45 associated with breast cancer [2]. BARD1 and BRCA1 can form a heterodimer by their N-terminal

46 RING finger domains which form a stable complex [3]. The full length-BARD1 (FL-BARD1) protein  
 47 has tumor-suppressor functions whether it acts as a heterodimer or in BRCA1 independent pathways.  
 48 However, the aberrant splice variants of BARD1 have oncogenic functions. The two major isoforms  
 49 involved in the breast cancer pathogenesis are BARD1 $\beta$  and BARD1 $\delta$  [4].

50 **Figure 1.** Schematic structures of BRCA1, BARD1 and isoforms: BARD1 $\beta$ , BARD1 $\delta$ .



51

52 **Legend:** RING finger domains enables to form stable complex between BRCA1 and BARD1. NES  
 53 are nuclear export signals which together with NLS (nuclear localization signals) are necessary  
 54 for proper intracellular localization of BARD1. ANK (Ankyrin repeats) interacts with several  
 55 proteins including p53 and NF- $\kappa$ B. BRCT (BRCA1 carboxy-terminal domain) motifs fold into a  
 56 binding pocket with a key lysine residue (K619).

57

58 The BARD1-BRCA1 heterodimer, as an E3 ubiquitin ligase, is essential in numerous cell  
 59 regulations [4]. Its primary function is to allow ubiquitin to be attached to different proteins which  
 60 marks them for further degradation. Due to this ability, the BARD1-BRCA1 heterodimer is engaged  
 61 in the DNA damage response pathway [4]. Its BRCT motifs are phosphoprotein-binding modules  
 62 and bind to poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR), which targets the BARD1-BRCA1 heterodimer to DNA damage  
 63 sites, where it acts as an E3 ubiquitin ligase. As a result, BRCA1 is able to participate in all major DNA  
 64 repair pathways [5,6].

65 Moreover, this heterodimer prevents the transcription of the damaged DNA and maintains its  
 66 genetic stability by ubiquitinating RNA polymerase II [7].

67 The BARD1-BRCA1 heterodimer is also responsible for the ubiquitination and subsequent  
 68 degradation of estrogen receptors alpha (ER $\alpha$ ). It is an important function in terms of pathogenesis  
 69 of breast cancer as estrogen receptors alpha (ER $\alpha$ ) and beta (ER $\beta$ ) activate genes responsible for cell  
 70 proliferation. [8].

71 BARD1 is also able to function as a protein in the BRCA1-independent pathways. BARD1 has a  
 72 crucial role during the induction of apoptosis by the stabilization of p53 [9]. Likewise, it inhibits  
 73 mRNA maturation during genotoxic stress through having an impact on CstF-50 (cleavage  
 74 stimulation factor) [10].

75 All these functions prove that FL-BARD1 has an important tumor suppressor role. However, in  
 76 neoplastic pathogenesis, BARD1 isoforms antagonize FL-BARD1 and enable uncontrolled  
 77 proliferation. The main cancerous isoforms are BARD1 $\beta$  and BARD1 $\delta$ .

78 The first of isoforms, BARD1 $\beta$ , stabilizes Aurora kinases A and B. It forms a complex with  
 79 BRCA2 and Aurora B during telophase and cytokinesis that results in overriding the mitotic  
 80 checkpoint and excessive cell proliferation. Thus, Aurora family of kinases and BARD1 $\beta$  expression  
 81 levels might be predictive biomarkers for responses to Aurora inhibitors [11]. The second key isoform,

82 BARD1 $\delta$ , interacts with ER $\alpha$  and antagonizes FL-BARD1 that results in a higher response rate to  
83 estrogens [8].

84 Breast cancer is the second most common neoplasia in the female population. Despite this fact,  
85 no more than 40% of familial breast cancers have been identified as having causative gene mutations  
86 [12]. Most of these mutations are in either the BRCA1 or the BRCA2 genes. The latest reports show  
87 though that deleterious BARD1 variants may be the reason for hereditary breast cancer in BRCA1  
88 and BRCA2 negative families [13]. There are already available new types of tests that show the  
89 presence of mutations not only in the BRCA1 or BRCA2 gene, but also in BARD1. BARD1 seems to  
90 be an interesting target for novel therapies as it is involved in many different cellular processes and  
91 therefore it has a lot of potential therapeutic targets.

92 The BARD1 protein also seems to be an interesting starting point in analyzing the causes of drug  
93 resistance in breast cancer cases. About 70% of breast cancers are ER positive. Despite using multiple  
94 drugs that are ER antagonists (e.g., tamoxifen) we still observe numerous relapses, even during 15  
95 years of post-treatment follow-up [14]. The main limitation in solving this problem is that the  
96 mechanisms of chemoresistance are still too-little understood. However, it seems that the BARD1  
97 protein, that is associated with so many cellular mechanisms, can play a key role here [14].

98 The aim of our review is to investigate the role of the BARD1 gene in the assessment of  
99 predisposition to breast cancer, which is related to the question of the usefulness of testing this gene  
100 in screening programs for families with familial history of breast cancer, and further - to investigate  
101 it as a potential target of new anticancer therapies, including sensitivity to chemotherapy.

## 102 **2. Scope of the review**

103 The article reviews the literature using the Pubmed, Google Scholar and Elsevier Clinical Key  
104 databases using the terms: "breast cancer"; "BARD1"; "surveillance"; "management"; "genetic  
105 testing"; "predisposition"; "susceptibility"; "neoadjuvant"; "chemotherapy" in various combinations  
106 as appropriate. Articles were screened for relevance, those with the most up-to-date information were  
107 selected for inclusion. In addition, a manual search of the reference lists of previously captured  
108 articles was carried out to increase the likelihood of choosing essential studies.

## 109 **3. The results of the review on the topics covered**

110 We have focused on four main issues regarding BARD1. The first one discusses the frequency  
111 of mutations in the BARD1 gene in non-BRCA1 and non-BRCA2 patients with breast cancer. It shows  
112 that BARD1 is one of the most common non-BRCA1/2 genes to mutate. For this reason, subsequently  
113 we present different possibilities for running a surveillance program for BARD1 for example  
114 detection of BARD1 gene isoforms by using specific antibodies or radiogenomics, which link clinical  
115 assessment with imaging results and genetic background. The next part discusses the possibility of  
116 using BARD1 as a target for new therapies using drugs such as an inhibitor of CDKs, mTOR inhibitor,  
117 PI3K inhibitors or PARP inhibitors (inhibitors of the enzyme poly ADP ribose polymerase) and a one  
118 of the histone deacetylase inhibitors. Finally, we consider BARD1 gene mutations and neoadjuvant  
119 setting in breast cancer which is important medical treatment modality for breast cancer patients  
120 treated today.

### 121 *3.1. The significance of BARD1 in genetic predisposition to breast cancer*

122 Genetic predisposition to breast cancer can be divided into three different levels [15,16],  
123 depending on the risk of breast cancer and the degree of gene penetrance. The first level is comprised  
124 of high-risk heterozygous, and highly penetrant gene mutations. The second level is associated with  
125 genes of intermediate penetrance and a moderate risk of breast cancer. The third level consists of low-  
126 penetrance breast cancer susceptibility alleles, and common polymorphisms (SNPs - single  
127 nucleotide polymorphisms) [13,16] (Table 1).

128 Since its discovery in 1996, the BARD1 gene and its various mutations have been extensively  
129 studied for breast cancer susceptibility. In a study of over 65,000 American non-BRCA1 and non-

130 BRCA2 patients (mean age at diagnosis 48.5) with breast cancer, pathogenic variants in BARD1 in  
 131 white women were associated with a significant moderately increased risk of breast cancer. The  
 132 pathogenic variant (PV) in this population, proved to be quite rare (<1 out of 500 breast cancer cases)  
 133 [20].

134 **Table 1.** Levels and characteristic of genetic predisposition to breast cancer.

Level of predisposition	Gene penetration	Risk of breast cancer	Examples of affected genes	Characteristics	Reference
I	High	High	BRCA1 and BRCA2, TP53, CDH1, STK11, PTEN	Mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 are responsible for 16-40% of hereditary breast and ovarian cancers and site-specific breast cancer; inTP53 is associated with up to 85% risk of developing breast cancer by age 60; germline mutations in CDH1 and STK11 are associated with 39-52% and 32-54% risk of developing breast cancer, respectively; germline mutations in the PTEN gene promoter are associated with an 85% lifetime risk of breast cancer	[12,17,18,19]
II	Intermediate	Moderate	ATM, CHEK2, BRIP1, BARD1, PALB2	Mutations in these genes are responsible for a 2- to 4-fold increase in the risk of breast cancer in comparison to population-based risk	[16]
III	Low	Low	FGFR2, RAD51	FGFR2 SNPs increase the risk of breast cancer by increasing the response to estrogen; RAD51 SNP2 i.e. are considered as BRCA1/2 mutations carriers risk modifiers	[13,16]

135 BARD1 is not only thought to be a breast cancer susceptibility gene, but also a gene predisposing  
 136 to triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) [21]. Furthermore, in a study of 10,901 TNBC patients, it was  
 137 established that BARD1 was one of the most common non-BRCA1/2 genes to mutate. Among other  
 138 genes [21], BARD1 was proven to be statistically significantly associated with a moderate to high risk  
 139 of TNBC with an incidence of 0.5-0.7% [21]. The same study established that the PVs in BARD1 were

140 associated with a lifetime risk of TNBC in 7% of cases; and a 21% risk for Caucasian patients and 39%  
141 risk of TNBC for African American patients [21]. In a different study of 289 African American patients,  
142 144 of whom were cases of familial breast cancer, only 1 incidence of PV in the BARD1 gene was  
143 found [22]. In another study of 1,824 female American patients with TNBC, 97% of which were white,  
144 1.9% African, 0.6% Asian and 0.6% Hispanic, deleterious mutations in BARD1 were detected 9 times,  
145 with an incidence of 0.3-0.5% [23].

146 Outside the United States, there has also been researched on BARD1 in Europe, Korea, and  
147 Australia. Out of 120 Korean breast cancer patients negative for BRCA1/2 mutations, PVs in the  
148 BARD1 gene were identified in two patients [24]. A Finnish study of 94 BRCA1/2 negative breast  
149 cancer families, established an incidence of 7.4% of Cys557Ser allele in the BARD1 gene in comparison  
150 with an incidence of 1.4% in the healthy controls [25]. Moreover, the BARD1 Cys557Ser allele was  
151 also reported in an Italian study with an incidence of 2.5% [26]. These studies may indicate that the  
152 BARD1 Cys557Ser allele is of European origin.

153 In three independent studies of the Polish population, a deleterious nonsense pathogenic  
154 BARD1 mutation, namely p.Q564X, was identified [13,27,28]. A study among 12,476 Polish and 1,459  
155 Belarusian breast cancer patients, identified a 0.27% incidence of the PV in both study groups,  
156 assessing it as a low/moderate breast cancer predisposition gene. The p.Q564X BARD1 mutation is  
157 possibly a founder mutation, present at least in Central Europe. However, its presence in the Polish  
158 control subgroup (0.15%) might indicate its low penetrance. It is also important to point out, that a  
159 higher incidence of the mutation was found in progesterone receptor-negative breast cancer patients  
160 than in the group of receptor-positive breast cancer patients (0.55% and 0.24%, respectively) [29]. An  
161 analysis of large mutations of the BARD1 gene in 504 breast cancer/ovarian cancer Polish patients  
162 was conducted and indicated that such mutations do not contribute to breast cancer predisposition  
163 [13]. This, however, does not contradict the role of BARD1 as a breast cancer susceptibility gene.

164 A study in Germany, inspecting germline loss-of function (LoF) variants in the BARD1 gene,  
165 was conducted in 4,469 breast cancer patients, 23 (0.51%) of whom had LoF variants. Those patients  
166 were significantly younger at first diagnosis than in the overall population sample (median age 42.3  
167 vs 48.6, respectively). LoF BARD1 variants were not significantly associated with patients with age  
168 at first diagnosis of equal or older than 50 years. This might suggest a need to intensify breast cancer  
169 surveillance programs and include testing for BARD1 PV [30].

170 However, controversy remains as to whether the BARD1 variant, in its rarity, can be clinically  
171 associated with increased breast cancer risk [24]. There have also been studies disputing that BARD1  
172 is a moderate/high-risk breast cancer susceptibility gene [31]. In a study of 684 Australian non-  
173 BRCA1/2 patients with familial breast cancer, 4 cases of PVs in BARD1 were identified (0.6%), and  
174 the study concluded there is no clinical value for the BARD1 PV mutation testing in breast cancer  
175 families.

### 176 3.2. Utility of BARD1 in surveillance programs

177 Currently, BRCA1/BRCA2 is the best-known gene relating to breast cancer. Depending on their  
178 age, those carriers at high, or very high-risk need: regular breast self-examination, imaging such as  
179 mammography or breast magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) every 6 to 12 months, transvaginal  
180 ultrasound every 6 months, and CA-125 blood testing due to the increased risk of ovarian cancer  
181 [32,33]. Patient monitoring can also include prophylactic mastectomy and bilateral salpingo-  
182 oophorectomy; though these procedures severely affect the patient's quality of life and can hamper  
183 her psychosocial well-being as a result of infertility [34,35]. Bearing this in mind, it seems justified  
184 that stricter monitoring should be undertaken, including risk stratification based on genetic testing.  
185 The BARD1 gene appears beneficial for patient observation. Based on 2019 study of a group of 4469  
186 women, it was concluded that the BARD1 gene correlates with early onset of breast cancer and a  
187 worse prognosis [30,36]. The mutated gene carriers should be screened at a younger age, especially  
188 because the gene has also been shown to be related to other cancers, including ovarian cancer,  
189 colorectal cancer, non-small-cell lung carcinoma and hepatocellular carcinoma [37,38]. The breast  
190 cancer cells produce isoforms of the BARD1 gene, which can be detected with specific antibodies

191 [39,40,41]. Interestingly, the isoforms can also be produced by spontaneous breast cancer not  
192 associated with BRCA group genes [42]. The above phenomenon may correlate with the fact that  
193 BARD1 functions as a factor of apoptosis, unrelated to BRCA1. Isoforms excessively expressed in  
194 tumor cells do not have suppressor functions, which leads to faster progression and poor prognosis  
195 [43,44,4].

196 A study published in 2007 found BARD1 isoforms to have a distinctive expression pattern. The  
197 full-length isoform accounted for 0%, while splice isoforms associated with alternative transcription  
198 initiation in exon 4 - for as much as 80.8% in different breast cancer cell lines (21 out of 26) [39].

199 In addition to the most obvious role of a screening test, the antibody testing can also be used for  
200 treatment monitoring because the increased expression of BARD1 isoforms is associated with disease  
201 progression. Immunohistochemical testing of breast cancer samples shows more intense staining of  
202 the cytoplasm due to the overexpression of BARD1 isoforms. It is worth mentioning that the degree  
203 of staining was proportional to the degree of malignancy and size of the tumor. Comparing those  
204 observations with the Tumor-Nodes-Metastasis staging system, it is hypothesized that  
205 overexpression of BARD1 isoforms is proportional to the size of the tumor and its malignancy grade,  
206 which in turn heralds a worse prognosis [44,45,46]. Recently, there has been a growing body of  
207 research suggesting that the BARD1 gene is only associated with low to intermediate risks of breast  
208 cancer [29]. Other genes, such as PALB2, BRIP1, ATM, CHEK2, RAD51C, RAD51D, NBN, NF1, and  
209 MMR should also be considered, as these can have a cumulative effect on the risk of breast cancer in  
210 combination with the BARD1 gene [19,46]. Our observations made here strongly advocates for  
211 patient surveillance based on multigenetic panel testing, or even for an individualized approach and  
212 monitoring based on genetic profiling [47].

213 Mammography and breast MRI remain the fundamental imaging modalities for the high and  
214 very high-risk patients. Decreasing mortality rates are thought to have resulted from more effective  
215 treatment [48]. Therefore, other diagnostic tools should be sought, not only for screening but also for  
216 risk management. An interesting approach might be radiogenomics, which brings together clinical  
217 assessment, imaging results and genetic background [49]. This approach would be of interest in  
218 relation to the immunohistochemical staining of the BARD1 gene, which in turn can be imaged in  
219 magnetic resonance scans. The precise diagnosis may play a role in decisions about whether to  
220 perform or postpone prophylactic surgical interventions due to breast cancer risk. However, the  
221 multidirectional diagnostic pathway as a standard approach requires further cohort trials and can be  
222 of interest for future researchers.

### 223 3.3. *BARD1 gene as a potential target of new anticancer therapies including sensitivity to chemotherapy with* 224 *a focus on breast cancer*

225 Several studies have shown that BARD1 can potentially become a new target for breast cancer  
226 treatment. Zhu Y et al. [14] have reported that the significantly higher expression of BARD1 and  
227 BRCA1 in tamoxifen-resistant breast cancer cells results in resistance to DNA-damaging  
228 chemotherapy with cisplatin and adriamycin, but not with paclitaxel. While the mutations of BRCA1  
229 and BARD1 cause a defective DNA damage repair, they also lead to increased sensitivity to platinum-  
230 based chemotherapy. The authors have also suggested that the consideration of microtubule-  
231 targeting agents such as taxanes while planning chemotherapy for tamoxifen-resistant breast cancer  
232 patients may be superior to DNA-damaging agents (i.e. anthracyclines and platinum compounds).  
233 Additionally, they have demonstrated that silencing the gene expression of the aforementioned  
234 proteins using siRNAs or phosphorylation inhibition of BRCA1 by a CDK inhibitor, dinaciclib  
235 restores the sensitivity to cisplatin in those cells. Since the simultaneous silencing of BARD1 and  
236 BRCA1 have failed to show any additive effect, they have deduced that effects of the therapeutic  
237 inhibition are propagated via the same pathway [14]. The same authors have also shown that PI3K  
238 inhibitors decrease the expression of BARD1 and BRCA1 in tamoxifen-resistant cells and resensitize  
239 them to cisplatin, both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Hence, they have concluded that the PI3K/Akt/mTOR  
240 pathway is responsible for the upregulation of BARD1 and BRCA1. This intracellular signaling  
241 pathway is responsible for the control of proliferation, apoptosis, angiogenesis, and cell survival. The

242 mutations affecting this pathway is the most encountered genetic alteration in ER-positive breast  
243 cancer, as well as in recurrent or metastatic cancers [50]. They also increase the activation of the  
244 PI3K/Akt/mTOR pathway, which influences the resistance to hormonal cancer therapy [51].

245 Li M et al. [52] have reported that the BARD1 BRCT domain interacts with poly(ADP-ribose)  
246 (PAR), which results in subsequent recruitment of the BARD1-BRCA1 complex to the damaged DNA.

247 The poly ADP-ribosylation (PARylation) is a particular importance since the promising drugs  
248 inhibiting the PAR polymerizing enzyme (PARP) appear to be more efficient in BRCA1-mutated cells  
249 with preserved BARD1 tumor suppressor function. The PARylation serves as a signal to recruit DNA  
250 damage repair proteins such as the BARD1-BRCA1 complex to the double-strand breaks (DSBs). The  
251 BARD1 BRCT domain by binding ADP-ribose, a basic unit of PAR, recruits BRCA1 to the DNA  
252 damage sites. This recruitment resulting in formation of BARD1-BRCA1 heterodimer can be  
253 suppressed by the PARP inhibition, which selectively eliminate BRCA1-deficient cells. Several PARP  
254 inhibitors (PARPi) have recently been approved by the FDA for the treatment of various neoplasms,  
255 including metastatic TNBC and estrogen receptor-negative (ER-)/HER2+ breast cancer with BRCA  
256 mutations [53].

257 Throughout treatment both ovarian and breast cancer patients harboring BRCA1 mutations  
258 initially responding to the platinum and PARPi therapy, develop the resistance to both PARPi and  
259 platinum compounds [54,55,56]. This resistance, as examined by the patient's biopsies could result  
260 from the observed secondary mutations or the methylation status of BRCA1, BRCA2 and other genes  
261 controlling the homologous recombination. One potential way to overcome this resistance could be  
262 the investigation of whether the expression of FL or the isoform of BARD1 contributes to the success  
263 or failure of the PARPi therapy [54].

264 None of above-mentioned inhibitors specifically affect BARD1. Lepore et al. [57] have shown that  
265 Vorinostat, a histone deacetylase inhibitor (HDACi) lowers the BARD1 isoform mRNA levels through  
266 increased miR-19a and miR-19b expression. Additionally, they have reported that the expression of  
267 the truncated BARD1 isoforms expressed in human acute myeloid leukemia (AML) cell lines is  
268 modulated by HDACi treatment via miR-19a/b. To verify whether this was an exclusive event to human  
269 AML cell lines, they have evaluated Vorinostat-induced downregulation of BARD1 expression in  
270 additional human cancer cell lines, such as MCF7 breast cancer cells, HeLa cervical cancer cells, and  
271 Kelly neuroblastoma cells. The time-dependent reduction has been observed in Kelly and MCF7 cell  
272 lines, but not in HeLa lines, indicating that the BARD1 dysregulation is cell line-restricted. Interestingly,  
273 cells affected by Vorinostat weakly express FL BARD1 [57].

#### 274 3.4. *BARD1 gene alterations in neoadjuvant setting in breast cancer*

275 Current data on this subject mainly refer to TNBC which has higher incidence of pathogenic  
276 variants of the BARD1 gene [58]. Watanabe et al. analyzed thirty TNBC core biopsy specimens of  
277 patients with pathologic complete response (non-invasive cancer) and non-complete response  
278 following neoadjuvant chemotherapy (NACT), with regard to the aberrant DNA methylation status  
279 of the BARD1 gene (from a total number of 16 DNA repair genes) using bisulfite-pyrosequencing.  
280 Although hypermethylation of BRCA1 gene is associated with TNBC subtype and may impact  
281 chemosensitivity and progression under NACT, BARD1 gene hypermethylation revealed only a low-  
282 to-moderate influence on these processes [59]. Some other studies underline the low incidence and  
283 uncertain clinical impact of gene mutations other than BRCA1/2 (including BARD1), and the  
284 associated unfavorable outcomes for patients with breast cancer undergoing NACT [60]. Yet other  
285 studies reported that BRCA1 and its associated protein BARD1 are upregulated in tamoxifen-  
286 resistant breast cancer cells, rendering the cells resistant to DNA-damaging chemotherapy [14,61].  
287 Today, neoadjuvant chemotherapy makes a significant contribution to chemotherapy in breast cancer  
288 and is a bridge towards adjuvant regimens and other therapies. Intensifying research into the role of  
289 BARD1 in chemotherapy in women for whom NACT is planned is essential and should be of benefit.  
290  
291

292 **4. Discussion**

293 The U.S. National Comprehensive Cancer Network (NCCN) guidelines do not routinely  
294 recommend BARD1 positive-patients to undergo additional breast cancer screening (early breast MRI,  
295 mammography), which might need to be implemented [21]. This screening is usually only performed  
296 in the cases with family history indicating that the patient has an increased risk of breast cancer. For  
297 now, the risks of breast cancer connected with BARD1 remain poorly defined and of varying  
298 prevalence across different populations. Nonetheless, there is multiple instances, listed in the  
299 evidence above, that the PVs of BARD1 not only increase the risk of breast cancer in general, but  
300 primarily of TNBC, and can be associated with age at first diagnosis of equal or under 50 years.

301 The BARD1 gene can significantly extend the monitoring options in patients at risk of breast  
302 cancer and during post-treatment follow-up. However, due to the low incidence of BARD1 mutations,  
303 such assumptions require further long-term population-based trials. At present, and considering  
304 potential benefits and costs, it seems that the possible uses of the BARD1 gene that we discussed in  
305 this review can set a direction for further research rather than provide real options for widespread  
306 use. However, it should be noted that commercial tests are available that can detect a mutation in the  
307 BARD1 gene.

308 Over the last few decades, molecular research has been intensified to further individualize the  
309 treatment of breast cancer patients. Personalization of systemic treatment is aimed at identifying a  
310 group of patients with unfavorable prognostic factors and at identifying patients who can benefit  
311 most from therapy [47]. The assessment of efficacy of PARPi in breast cancer patients with the  
312 relatively frequent LoF mutations of BARD1 would be of necessity to improve patients' outcomes.  
313 Ozden et al. [62] proved that BARD1 $\beta$  sensitizes colon cancer cells to poly PARP-1 inhibition even in  
314 an FL BARD1 background, thus suggesting that BARD1 $\beta$  may serve as a future biomarker for  
315 assessing the suitability of colon cancers for homologous recombination targeting with PARPi in the  
316 treatment of advanced colon cancer. Clinical trials of PARPi in neoadjuvant, mono- and combination  
317 therapy settings in breast cancer are ongoing.

318 Neoadjuvant chemotherapy offers opportunity to assess the molecular changes of heterogenic  
319 breast cancer tissue before and after chemotherapy, especially in the case of TNBC, in which BARD1  
320 gene deleterious alterations are the most prevalent and NACT seem to have the greatest value.

321 Near half of cited papers about breast cancer in this review did not relate to any molecular  
322 subtype. Most of the relevant studies suggesting the role of BARD1 in breast cancer is in TNBC  
323 patients. This shows that more research is based and needed into the genesis and therapeutic  
324 potential of TNBC.

325

326 **5. Conclusions**

327 Analyzing structure and functions of the BARD1 gene, we believe that BARD1 gene can play an  
328 important role in the pathogenesis of breast cancer and in the mechanisms of chemo-resistance of  
329 cancer cells as well.

330 It is reasonable to screen BARD1 gene isoforms in certain populations, especially in those with  
331 evidence of higher prevalence of mutations in the BARD1 gene. This approach would also have to be  
332 researched for its relevance to general breast cancer patient outcomes, survival rates, quality of life,  
333 influence on treatment decisions and cost-effectiveness.

334 Radiogenomics is a promising field of science as a bridge between molecular and imaging  
335 medicine. Broader prospective studies and standardization (i.e. immunohistochemistry studies with  
336 BARD1-directed antibodies) will provide determination of appropriate imaging biomarkers enabling  
337 "cancer cell visibility" before they can be introduced in to a clinical investigation.

338 Further research on the BARD 1 gene expression may contribute to the effective reversal of  
339 PARPi resistance and the wider introduction of new targeted therapies for the treatment of breast  
340 cancer patients.

341 Data on patients with BARD1 gene polymorphism undergoing NACT for breast cancer are  
342 limited. However, gene expression alterations after NACT can shed light on the pathogenesis of this  
343 multifactorial disease.

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